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AFRICAN STUDENTS IN THE UNITED STATES

A Guide for Sponsors of
Student Exchange Programs
with Africa

COMMITTEE ON EDUCATIONAL INTERCHANGE POLICY

1 EAST 67TH STREET, NEW YORK CITY

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The Committee on Educational Interchange Policy was established by the Institute of International Education in 1954 in response to a recommendation made by an independent committee which studied the role and functions of the Institute. This group noted the need for a policy committee to survey the field of exchange, and recommended that the Institute create such a body. The Committee has been assigned responsibility for helping to:

1. Clarify the values of exchanges; set standards and provide objectives for exchange activities.
2. Identify problems and difficulties; find solutions.
3. Identify promising programs and bring them to the attention of interested groups.

Although established by the Institute, the Committee's responsibility is to study and report upon the whole area of exchange of persons, and not only those activities to which IIE itself is related. The Committee is served by a small secretariat in the Institute.

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AFRICAN STUDENTS IN THE UNITED STATES

"I am sure God will reward your efforts," a young African¹ wrote to a prominent American, "if you will seek a scholarship for me to study in the U.S." Thousands of young Africans voice the same plea in letters to colleges and universities, church groups, private organizations and individuals in the U.S. Some 1165 Africans from South of the Sahara were successful in finding study opportunities at American institutions in 1960, almost four times as many as ten years ago, but many more are begging for admission. The flood of appeals from individual Africans is now being augmented by requests from their governments. Tom Mboya, during his visits to the United States in 1959 and again in 1960, spent much of his time seeking scholarships for students from East Africa. Patrice Lumumba, controversial leader in the Congo, promised Congolese children: "Study hard and I will send you to Britain and America for higher training. Then you can come back and save the Congo." As each new African state achieves independence, its leaders seek study opportunities abroad to supplement local educational facilities. With at least 16 new African states appearing on the map in 1960, the demand for educational opportunity in the United States is not likely to diminish.

More Africans were educated in colleges and universities abroad in 1959 than in Africa. Excluding the Union of South Africa, there are only ten universities in tropical Africa, some

¹ The term African, as used in this paper, refers to Africans from South of the Sahara and North of the Union of South Africa.

of which have just started to function. Lovanium University in the Congo graduated its first students in 1959. About 7000 African students were enrolled at African institutions in 1958,² compared with some 6500 studying at the post-secondary level in the United Kingdom and some 2000 in France. These figures do not include student priests, estimated by one observer at 2000 in Italy alone. In addition, growing numbers of Africans are studying in Germany, Austria, the Netherlands, India and Egypt. One African leader sits on six selection committees set up by foreign countries offering scholarships to his country.

In the United States colleges and universities, private organizations, foundations and the United States Government, are cooperating with African governments to provide educational opportunities. In 1960 some 145 colleges and universities awarded scholarships to almost 300 students from East and Central Africa sponsored by Tom Mboya, young Kenya leader. Harvard and 23 other United States colleges and universities awarded 24 all-expense scholarships to students from Nigeria in the same year. This program will be expanded in 1961 to approximately 100 universities and to all of tropical Africa. The private Negro colleges in the United States hope to set up a joint scholarship program for East and Central Africa. The United States Department of State brought about 75 Africans here for university study in 1959, and the International Cooperation Administration about 550 for short-term visits, some of which involved university study. At least 15 American universities are affiliated with African universities under contracts financed by the ICA.

As the tide of African students turns toward American shores, universities and sponsoring organizations must be

² UNESCO, *Basic Facts and Figures; International Statistics Relating to Education, Culture and Mass Communication*, 1960, p. 11.

prepared to meet the challenge. To assist them, this pamphlet presents background information on current African student exchange programs and discusses some of the problems that have arisen. It concludes with a list of basic questions which universities and sponsors should ask themselves as they embark on new African student exchange programs.

Why do they come?

Student exchange with Africa, even more than with other areas of the world, serves to promote the economic and social development of nations. Scholarly purposes, broadening the outlook of individuals and fostering goodwill, have for the time being assumed secondary importance in the face of the emergency educational needs of Africa. With a fervor reminiscent of Japan after Commodore Perry opened it to outside influence, African nations seek professional and technical training abroad for their nationals. The traditional goals of exchange may well re-assert themselves as African nations achieve national development and reach out for broader cultural contacts, but the emphasis today is on acquiring the skills and techniques that permit a nation to function and grow in the modern world.

Where do they come from?

Who are the African students now in the United States, and where do they come from? Africa is many countries in many stages of political development. Ethiopia and Liberia are long independent. Ghana has been independent since 1957. Nigeria, Somalia, the Congo and the thirteen African republics in the French Community achieved independence in 1960. Sierra Leone, East Africa and the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland are on the road to independence. Only a few, notably

Portuguese Angola and Mozambique, are still colonies. Students come to the United States in large numbers from some of these countries, and in small numbers from others. As early as 1847 a student from Sierra Leone studied at Oberlin and Sierra Leoneans have been coming ever since. In the 1880's and 1890's students came from the Congo, but educational restrictions imposed by the Belgian Government later halted the flow. The first Nigerians came around 1900, and the first students from Kenya after World War II.³

At present African students come to the United States either from areas of British influence (67%) or from the long-independent nations of Liberia and Ethiopia (29%). Out of a total of 1165⁴ from tropical Africa in 1960, the combined French, Belgian, Portuguese and Italian territories were represented by only 27 students. The five countries which accounted for the most African students were Nigeria, Liberia, Ethiopia, Ghana and Kenya, in that order. In the past decade Kenya has edged out Sierra Leone. The number of students from Nigeria reached a peak of 269 in 1953, after which it declined somewhat, due partly to stricter admission standards in the United States and partly to an increasing number of study opportunities in the United Kingdom. The number of Nigerians in the United Kingdom increased from 1525 in 1953 to 3585 in 1959 (Table A). This means that at present the number of students in the United Kingdom from Nigeria alone is almost three times the number in the United States from all of Africa. This situation is changing, however, as the number of opportunities for Africans to study in the United States increases.

³ A history of African students in the United States is being written by Horace Mann Bond, President of Lincoln University from 1945 to 1957, now Dean of the School of Education at Atlanta University.

⁴ Statistics from Institute of International Education, *Open Door* 1960. North Africa and the Union of South Africa are not included.

Why is there a preponderance of students from British Africa in the United States? An important factor in starting the movement of African students to the United States from British Africa was the influence of certain American missionary groups, including many Negro denominations, which sent Africans to denominational colleges in the United States. The most obvious reason, however, is a common language and cultural tradition, rooted in common historical ties with Britain. The British system, more than the French or Belgian systems, also prepared larger numbers of Africans for higher education. Although British policy encouraged Africans to study in Commonwealth universities rather than the United States, a certain number of students have always chosen to study in American institutions.⁵ Students from French and Belgian territories on the other hand, faced with marked differences in the language, culture and educational systems, have been attracted toward French-speaking countries of Europe.

Who Sponsors Them?

Almost a fourth of the African students in the United States in 1960 were financed in whole or in part by their own governments, a far higher proportion than of students from any other area of the world (Table B). This in itself is an indication of the importance that new African governments attach to American education. 29.2% of African students in 1960 were supported by private sources, including American colleges and universities, about 14% by the United States Government and 12.8% were self-supporting. The remaining 20.7% did not report their source of support.

⁵ The earliest example was James Edward Kwegyr Aggrey, who came to the United States from the Gold Coast in 1898. Aggrey was offered a scholarship to study in England but to everyone's surprise went to Livingstone College in Salisbury, North Carolina, instead. Smith, Edwin W., *Aggrey of Africa*, Student Christian Movement, London, 1929.

Despite the relatively large proportion of African students receiving some kind of financial assistance, many have inadequate financial support. Too often the scholarships they obtain are partial ones, covering only tuition or tuition plus room and board. This is insufficient to maintain the student during vacations, and to pay other expenses. The families of African students are unable to send them substantial sums, and may even rely on them for support or contributions toward the education of other members of the family. Finding a job is even more difficult for African students than for other foreign students, because of their color. In their eagerness to study, many Africans do not investigate scholarship conditions thoroughly before accepting them. They assume that the terms of an award in the United States are similar to those in certain other countries, which cover all expenses until completion of the prescribed course.

Student exchange programs between Africa and the United States have always relied heavily on "self-help", with each student expected to pay a large share of his study expenses from savings or earnings. In the 1940's self-help programs of this kind were established by two Nigerian students, A. A. Nwafor Orizu and K. O. Mbadiwe, who collected funds from individuals in the United States and from students' families in Nigeria. Although these programs were badly organized and encountered serious financial difficulties, they did provide educational opportunities in the United States for many West Africans who are today putting their education to good use. Because they dramatized the determination of young Africans to obtain an education, these programs also stimulated American organizations and the British Government to provide more scholarships for West Africa. Recently the self-help approach has been used in a highly publicized program for East Africa.

The East African airlift program, developed by Tom

Mboya, is administered by the African-American Students Foundation. With the assistance of prominent Americans interested in Africa, the Foundation in 1959 raised some \$50,000 in a nation-wide appeal to fly 81 East African students here. Primarily undergraduates, they studied at institutions in all parts of the United States, ranging from the University of California to Philander Smith College in Arkansas. About a fourth were at institutions in the South. The students in the 1959 group represented 14 different tribes: Kikuyu, Nandi, Luhya, Maragoli, Mganda, Kibabu, Kamba, Taita, Luo, Kissi, Masai, Meru, Chonyi and Bunyore. In 1960 the AASF brought 290 students, mostly from Kenya, with about 50 from other parts of East and Central Africa. Funds for transportation were assured by a \$100,000 grant from the Joseph P. Kennedy Foundation, which became front-page news when a Republican Senator charged that the Kennedy Foundation had "outbid" the State Department for political reasons.⁶ Stressing Tom Mboya's belief that "self-help is something that brings out the best in any person", the AASF asks students to raise funds for their living and incidental expenses before they leave Africa. Among the ways suggested are working, saving and obtaining family or tribal support. Some students have sold their most precious possessions, the Foundation reports, such as land or cattle, in order to finance their study, and others have "contacted hundreds of small shopkeepers and other individuals, collecting a shilling here and a pound note there⁷."

A program representing an entirely different approach is the American Universities Program for Africa, established by a group of leading educational institutions, and administered

⁶ The Kennedy Foundation replied that it had made the grant only after the State Department had turned down repeated requests for financial assistance from the AASF.

⁷ A Statement on the Program and Plans of the African-American Students Foundation, January 14, 1960.

by the African-American Institute. In 1960 24 institutions, including Harvard, awarded renewable, all-expense scholarships to 24 Nigerian undergraduates selected by a Nigerian-American board, including two American admissions officers who traveled to Africa. Most participating institutions were located in the East, with a scattering in other parts of the country. The program has now been expanded to all of tropical Africa, and to about 100 leading American universities in all parts of the United States. The American Universities Program for Africa is financed jointly by the participating American institutions, which contribute tuition scholarships; African governments, which pay transportation, and the United States Government which pays living costs over and above the limits of the students' own resources. The Carnegie Corporation is assisting the American institutions to meet their administrative costs. Advantages of this type of program are obvious: it assures American institutions of well-qualified, carefully selected African students; it assures students of placement at a reputable American institution, and of sufficient funds to eliminate the need to seek employment; and cooperation of African governments increases the likelihood that students will be able to use their education when they return home.

What do they study?

What are the 1165 Africans from South of the Sahara and North of the Union studying in the United States? (Table C) The social sciences attracted significantly more African students (23.6%) in 1959-60 than did other fields.

The physical and natural sciences, the humanities and engineering were next, attracting 14%, 13% and 12% respectively. Among the social sciences, economics had top place. Concentration on the social sciences differentiates Africans from students from other parts of the world, who give first

priority to engineering. Africans in the United States also study agriculture, education and the medical sciences in somewhat higher proportions than do students from other areas of the world. From the limited data available, it appears that Africans who study in the United Kingdom choose different fields from those who come to the United States. In 1953 almost a quarter of the colonial students in the United Kingdom (of whom 54% were African) were studying law,⁸ compared with fewer than 1% of those in the United States. It is true, however, that in European institutions law and economics are the closest equivalents to the social sciences in American institutions.

Are Africans in the United States preparing themselves in fields that are needed in Africa today? Should more of them be studying engineering and the natural sciences, for example, and fewer political science and economics? Or should they emphasize the social sciences rather than the sciences, in view of the tremendous tasks facing new governments in organizing and administering a nation? Should more concentrate on vocational and technical subjects and fewer on the liberal arts? Or is it the liberal arts that are most important, as a foundation for other fields? Many of those most concerned with economic and social development in Africa recommend that priorities be established among different fields, and students channeled into them. If Africans study fields in which there is a lesser need and neglect those in which there is a greater need, they point out, serious manpower problems may arise. This has already happened in some parts of Asia.⁹

⁸ Political and Economic Planning, *Colonial Students in Britain*, London, 1955, page 211.

⁹ The Japanese Government estimates that in 1962 it will have a surplus of 300,000 university graduates in all fields, but a deficit of 77,000 in the technical sciences, pedagogy, medicine and pharmacy. *International Association of Universities Bulletin*, Vol. 7, 1959, No. 3.

Others, however, argue that from a long-term point of view the particular field studied by an African student is not as important as his capacity to make use of what he has learned. Whatever subject the student chooses, provided he masters it, will be useful to him and to his country. Julius Nyerere, British-educated leader of the independence movement in Tanganyika, recently stated that East Africa needs educated people in all fields. He would not discourage a student who chooses law, despite the surplus of lawyers in some parts of Africa. Similarly, a noted Negro educator in the United States writes:

I am of the opinion that it matters little if the African student is not being prepared to do the work available to him in his country, at the present time. My little experience in Africa leads me to believe that the Africans need to be trained in the arts and sciences, in agriculture, in engineering and technology, and all other careers available to students in the modern world. If the African student is definitely qualified, he will find a way when he returns to his own country.¹⁰

Academic level

At what level are Africans studying in the United States? (Table B) 56% of those here in 1960 were at the undergraduate level, and only half that many at the graduate level. About 10% were special or unclassified students. The proportion of undergraduates from Africa is smaller than from either Latin America or the Near East, but larger than from Europe or the Far East. In the past, Liberia has consistently been represented by a high proportion of undergraduates, while the proportion

¹⁰ Letter to the Committee on Educational Interchange, Policy from Benjamin E. Mays, President of Morehouse College, April 20, 1960.

from other African countries has fluctuated from year to year. With the establishment of large new undergraduate programs involving East and Central, as well as West Africa, the proportion of undergraduates from all African countries will probably increase.

Undergraduate Africans have traditionally been welcomed by smaller U.S. colleges, especially those with religious support. Today however, many universities with strong graduate facilities are participating in African student exchange and offering substantial scholarships to African undergraduates. This partly reflects the broader world outlook on college and university campuses in the face of America's ever-growing international responsibilities. Foreign students are now recognized as a positive asset in the informal education of U.S. undergraduates. It is also attributable to a growing recognition by American institutions that educational needs in Africa differ from those in other parts of the world.

Undergraduate facilities commensurate with the demand for education are simply not available in Africa. There is an acute shortage of teachers and school buildings. African universities, patterned on European models, maintain extremely high standards which limit the number of undergraduates who may enter. In British Africa, students who would be considered college caliber in the United States (and sometimes in the United Kingdom as well) cannot gain admission to an institution of higher education. Thus African undergraduates *must* look abroad if they are to achieve their aspirations, and American universities are increasingly willing to help them.

Should Africans study at segregated institutions?

The question of whether foreign students from Asia and Africa should enroll at segregated educational institutions in

the United States has long been debated. In 1949 the Phelps-Stokes Fund surveyed African students in the United States and found that roughly half were registered at institutions in the South,¹¹ compared with 11% of the foreign students of all nationalities. In 1959-60 the proportion at segregated institutions had declined to 18%, due primarily to an increasing number of scholarships offered by northern institutions. The pros and cons of sending African students to segregated institutions can be summarized as follows:¹²

Pro

— Negro institutions have traditionally been hospitable to African students due to cultural bonds and a natural sympathy with African nationalism. They have encouraged the social and political aspirations of young Africans, and trained many of the African leaders of today. One Negro institution says of its alumni: "Many of them have succeeded beyond expectation, and I am not speaking of Azikiwe or Nkrumah. They are active in education, law, medicine, government service and other areas. We are proud of them and feel that the money we spent on them is a good investment."¹³

— Negro institutions offer generous scholarships to African students. For those on their own, tuition and living costs are low. In 1949 yearly college expenses were \$500-\$1000 less in the South than in the North,¹⁴ and there is still a substantial differential today.

¹¹ Phelps-Stokes Fund, *A Survey of African Students Studying in the United States*, October 1949, pp. 52-76.

¹² *Ibid.*, pp. 26-29.

¹³ Letter to the Institute of International Education from Lincoln University, April 26, 1960.

¹⁴ Phelps-Stokes Fund, *Op. cit.*, p. 28.

— In some fields Negro institutions offer courses and points of view that are particularly well suited to the needs of African students. Local conditions are closer to those in Africa. This is especially important in agriculture and vocational fields. Foreign agricultural economists from Asia, for example, comment favorably on courses studied at institutions in the southern part of the United States "where many of the crops, cropping patterns, farm organization and institutions are more similar to those of Asia."¹⁵

— Negro institutions are generally small and are able to give students personal attention. This makes them particularly suitable for relatively unsophisticated African undergraduates. Africans in the South form close friendships with faculty and students.¹⁶ Negro institutions often provide a good transition for African students preparing for graduate study at large northern institutions.

Con

— Due to the separate, but unequal facilities provided for Negro students in the South, educational standards, with certain notable exceptions, are not on a par with those in the North. Negro land-grant institutions, for example, operate under a time lag of some 15 to 25 years behind similar northern institutions.¹⁷ While many white institutions in

¹⁵ Wharton, Clifton R. J., *The United States Graduate Training of Asian Agricultural Economists*, Council on Economic and Cultural Affairs, 1959, p. 25.

¹⁶ "Examples of warm friendships between faculty members and students appeared more frequent in the South than in the North. Students in such large universities as Columbia, the University of Chicago, Roosevelt College, etc. reported that no one had ever spoken to them during the whole year's study." Phelps-Stokes Fund, *Op. cit.*, p. 28.

¹⁷ Eddy, Edward Danforth J., *Colleges for Our Land and Time*, Harper Bros., 1956, p. 257.

the South are similarly handicapped, and while the best Negro institutions compare favorably with the best in the North, too many Africans attend sub-standard and even non-accredited institutions. The most capable may eventually transfer to other institutions, but a waste of time and talent is inevitably involved.

— African students come to the United States to get a well-rounded education, including the benefits of American cultural and social life. This is restricted in the South due to the pattern of color segregation. While discrimination also exists in the North, it is far more pervasive in the South due to law and social custom. African students should not be deprived of the experience of living in an integrated society.

There is substantial agreement that Africans should study at institutions of good academic standing, offering the kind of education or training the student needs, regardless of location. Such institutions are found in both the North and the South. Students themselves suggest that the best way for an African undergraduate to get both a good education and a well-rounded view of American life, is to spend some time in both the North and the South. In the past, financial considerations have often tipped the balance in favor of the South. With increasing amounts of scholarship assistance being offered by northern institutions, there will undoubtedly be more Africans in the North. Presumably one day the doors of all American institutions will be open to good students regardless of color, and the question of placing African students at segregated institutions will not arise.

The African Student and Race Relations

How severely does the American pattern of segregation and discrimination affect the African student in the United

States? The American race relations problem is an interesting facet of American life to all foreign students, but only dark-skinned students are directly affected by it. Probably every African visiting the United States encounters discrimination in one form or another. In the South he encounters outright segregation. In the North discrimination shows itself in segregated housing and occasional refusal of service in restaurants, barber shops or other public places. On college campuses it may show itself in fraternity practices and social life, especially in states bordering on the South.¹⁸

What effect discrimination has on the average African student is difficult to assess. Africans commenting on race relations in the Phelps-Stokes survey were uniformly anxious that no undue emphasis be placed on their experiences, apparently for fear it would discourage other African students. Only a fourth of those surveyed mentioned embarrassing experiences that might be attributed to discrimination.¹⁹ (In contrast is a 1953 study of colonial students in Britain, in which nearly three-quarters of the Africans reported discrimination, especially in housing.)²⁰ Many African students adapt themselves

¹⁸ "By avoiding altogether placement in most southern states for students from many countries in both Asia and Africa, we do not run into the problem of discrimination to any great extent in this area. It is in the border states, such as Texas, Oklahoma, parts of Kansas, Indiana, Illinois and Ohio, where we have to be particularly careful to get all the information possible on a given school and community in order to avoid any possible trouble. We have found that it is essential to consider the community as well as the school, because often-times a small college town will be inhospitable to Africans and Asians (occasionally to *all* foreign students) while the school itself, whether large or small, is quite prepared to accept them The size of the school cannot be used as a criterion for judging the reception of students from Asia and Africa, since the discriminatory practices often found in the smaller, more conservative schools are not necessarily eliminated on the large campus, where the student may be left completely alone to fend for himself." IIE, internal memorandum September 18, 1956.

¹⁹ Phelps-Stokes Fund, *Op. cit.*, p. 51.

²⁰ Political and Economic Planning, *Op. cit.*, p. 84.

to local mores by identifying themselves immediately as Africans,²¹ frequenting only those public places where they know they will be welcome, and living in segregated housing. Some group together in nationality houses (as do other foreign students), and others associate primarily with American Negroes.

It may well be that Americans, prone to self-criticism on this score, exaggerate both the amount of discrimination suffered by dark-skinned visitors, and their reactions to it. How an African reacts to discrimination depends as much on his cultural background and past experiences as it does on what happens in the United States. Within Africa, the patterns of race relations show tremendous variation. In West Africa, where few whites have settled, there is little color consciousness and no discrimination. Europeans who have lived in Ghana for several years report almost complete absence of color distinction. In segregationist South Africa, with its long history of white settlement, the government is attempting complete separation of white and Negro communities. In between are East and Central Africa, which are multi-racial and find themselves faced with a difficult choice. Frequently it is not the student from West Africa who suffers most from the American pattern of race relations, as might be anticipated, but the student from South or Central Africa. These students are not accustomed to mingling with people of other races, and must therefore adjust both to equality and discrimination at the same time.

²¹ "It is also interesting to note that even in schools located outside of the border areas but in small isolated communities, as in parts of North and South Dakota, a foreign student, particularly one of a non-white race, is considered strange and mysterious. The attitude can be considerably different, however (particularly toward Southeast Asians, and occasionally toward Africans) if the student is obviously 'foreign' — in fact, the more exotic the better. Hence the emphasis in many communities, which on the whole are discriminatory, on having the foreign students wear some sort of native dress." Institute of International Education, internal memorandum, September 18, 1956.

Because the problem of race relations has its origins deep within United States society, finding democratic solutions is a long-term process. Although American mores are changing, some degree of discrimination will be an undeniable fact of American life for some time to come. Much can be done, however, to ensure that dark-skinned visitors arrive in the United States with a reasonably accurate idea of the true situation, and return home with a better idea of the historical roots of the problem and of steps being taken to eradicate it. Like all foreign students, Africans can benefit from orientation programs in which United States race relation problems, among other topics, are dealt with forthrightly. It is surely the obligation of those who play host to African students to assist them in finding housing and places to eat, and of host institutions to know where discrimination exists in their own communities, so that they can mediate between the student and his environment. There are those who argue that the discovery that America, too, has serious social problems, which it is striving to overcome, is in itself a valuable experience for foreign students.

Should African Students study in the United States?

Although recent developments in student exchange with Africa may have made the question academic, it is worth asking whether the United States is the best place for students from Africa to study. Shouldn't they study in their home countries instead, or at the European institutions on which their educational systems are patterned? Even those who raise the question would not rule out study in the United States altogether. They would, however, argue for a limited, carefully controlled exchange with much of Africa, on the grounds that (a) secondary education has not yet reached the point where it can prepare enough qualified students both for home institu-

tions and for study abroad, even if the term "qualified" is given in the most liberal interpretation; (b) whether due to different systems of education, different standards or simply to prejudice, degrees and professional qualifications obtained at American universities are frequently not recognized in African countries, and this works to the detriment of returning students,²² and (c) by attracting educated young Africans away from their homelands, large-scale exchange programs for African students threaten to weaken higher educational institutions at home, accentuate the shortage of trained personnel, especially teachers, and alienate the students from fast-moving events.

African leaders and other competent observers reply that Africa needs education on a massive scale. Educational opportunities available in Africa and in Europe are not enough. Help is needed from America. Problems of preparation and degree recognition undeniably exist, but will gradually be solved. American degrees, for example, are steadily gaining prestige as colonial influence wanes and Africans educated in America assume positions of authority. Furthermore, American education and American society have certain attributes which commend themselves particularly to Africans. These include the diversity and flexibility of American educational institutions, which correspond to the diversity of African educational needs, the practical orientation of American education, which stresses pragmatic rather than purely intellectual values,²³ the concept

²² In British Africa, for example, teachers are required to have three consecutive years of study in a major field; an M.A. in education is not sufficient. In Sierra Leone, graduates of American universities and professional schools were for many years unable to obtain certification in education, civil service, medicine and dentistry.

²³ A scholar from Ghana comments: "The education we are getting from the States brings American pragmatism into balance with European intellectualism, and the results cannot but be good for Africa." Jones-Quartey, K.A.B., *As Others See Us: The United States Through Foreign Eyes*, edited by Franz M. Joseph, Princeton University Press, 1959.

of education for the masses rather than for a small elite, American emphasis on science and technology and American techniques for improving individual welfare while preserving individual liberty.

Finally, the political arguments for study in the United States cannot be ignored. The strongly nationalistic attitude of many Africans precludes study in a colonial country. The Soviet Union offers hundreds of scholarships without inquiring closely into the academic preparation of students. Unless scholarships to the United States are made available, African students may be driven to seek education in the USSR.

Conclusion

A large number of African students are now studying in the United States and will doubtless continue to do so. Recently established programs illustrate the willingness of American universities, as well as the United States and African governments, to assist students to come here. The East African airlift program illustrates the determination of African students to help themselves, and their ability to enlist the support of a wide segment of the American public. The fact that a certain number of students with limited financial resources and minimum preparation are coming on their own or under emergency programs, is not surprising. The self-help principle has always been characteristic of a certain type of exchange program, and has often had worthwhile results. Despite the problems generated by the West African programs of the 1940's, for example, they provided educational opportunity for deserving students and stimulated constructive action by governments and private organizations on behalf of West African students. There are signs that the East African airlift program is having the same effect. The real question is not whether African students should come to the United States,

or even under whose auspices, but how their studies can be made most profitable.

A successful student exchange program requires knowledge, foresight and planning. Good intentions are not enough. The more urgent the need, the more important it is to anticipate problems and use all available tools to solve them. The risks involved in a new exchange program with a new part of the world can be reduced by intelligent forethought and cooperation among all interested groups. The questions which follow are intended to assist educational institutions and sponsoring groups in planning exchange programs with Africa.

Questions for Sponsors

1. What is being done to help African students at present, and what more needs to be done? What do African leaders think needs to be done?

2. What should be the respective roles of (a) African institutions, (b) institutions in Europe, Asia and the Middle East and (c) American institutions in providing higher education for Africans? Which of Africa's educational needs can best be met by study in America?

3. To what extent should student exchange be geared to long-term needs of African countries, and to what extent to short-term needs? To what extent should it be tied in with economic development programs?

4. Which countries should be given priority in planning student exchange with Africa? Should students from French-speaking areas be encouraged to study in the United States?

5. Which fields, if any, should be given priority in planning student exchanges with Africa? At what academic level should students come?

6. What can be done to ensure that students meet at least the minimum qualifications for study in the United States? To make sure that they have adequate financing?

7. Should African students study at segregated institutions offering appropriate training? What are the advantages and disadvantages?

8. To what extent is the U.S. curriculum, based on American needs, suited to the needs of Africa? Are special programs for Africans the solution?

9. How can United States organizations cooperate among themselves and with African governments in dealing with the problems of non-sponsored African students who come to the United States on their own? What are the implications of these problems for "international understanding and good will?"

10. What can be done on the United States side to encourage students to return home? What attitude should sponsors take toward students who do not return home promptly? Students who plan to remain permanently in the United States?

11. How can African studies centers benefit from African students in the United States? Contribute to the preparation of Africans for their future careers in Africa?

Questions for Colleges and Universities

1. What does the university have to offer African students? What do African students have to offer the university?

2. What kinds of African students should the university seek to attract? What countries? What fields? What academic levels?

3. Should the economic needs of Africa, and career opportunities at home, be taken into account in admitting African students? In awarding scholarships?

4. Does the need for trained people in Africa warrant admitting African students who do not fully meet the academic standards of the university?

5. In screening applications from African students, is the university making full use of available information on the evaluation of African credentials? Is it aware of existing machinery for selecting African students?

6. Is the university prepared to assist African students who may have financial difficulties? Are job opportunities available for African students during vacation periods? During the school year?

7. To what extent should the university make allowances for cultural and language handicaps in judging the performance of African students? How can students be helped to overcome handicaps without lowering academic standards?

8. Are African students likely to encounter any special adjustment problems? Does discrimination exist in the college community or on the campus? What can be done about it?

9. Should course content and degree requirements be adapted to the needs of African students? Should special certificates be awarded instead of degrees? Should special schools be set up for Africans?

10. Will African students have opportunities to meet and associate informally with American students? With American families?

11. How can African students contribute to broadening the education of United States undergraduates? To the teaching and research program of the university?

*TABLE A*NUMBER OF NIGERIANS STUDYING IN THE
UNITED KINGDOM, 1953-1959

1953 (January) — 1525

1955 (July) — 2782

1957 (July) — 2924

1959 (January) — 3585

SOURCE: British Information Services, New York City.

TABLE B

CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDENTS FROM AFRICA STUDYING IN THE U.S. COMPARED WITH STUDENTS FROM OTHER PARTS OF THE WORLD, 1959-60

Category	All Foreign Students		AFRICA				Far East		Near and Middle East		Europe		Latin America	
			Africa So. of Sahara		North Africa		Union of So. Africa							
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Total No. of Students.....	48486		1165		613		181		17175		7110		6362	9428
Financial Support														
U.S. Government.....	2652	5.5	146	12.5	71	11.6	2	1.1	1395	8.1	300	4.2	287	4.6
Foreign Government.....	2242	4.6	250	21.5	136	22.2	14	7.7	410	2.4	711	10.0	180	2.8
Self	18557	38.3	149	12.8	104	16.9	50	27.6	5648	32.9	3318	46.6	1636	25.7
Private	13451	27.8	340	29.2	109	17.8	70	38.7	5633	32.8	1063	15.0	2372	37.3
U.S. Govt. and Private...	1136	2.3	19	1.6	4	.7	11	6.1	327	1.9	70	1.0	560	8.8
Foreign Govt. and Private	254	.5	20	1.7	15	2.4	6	3.3	45	.3	34	.5	49	.7
No Answer	10194	21.0	241	20.7	174	28.4	28	15.5	3717	21.6	1614	22.7	1278	20.1
Sex														
Male	37988	78.3	1024	87.9	523	85.3	151	83.4	12828	74.7	6237	87.7	4731	74.4
Female	10498	21.7	141	12.1	90	14.7	30	16.6	4347	25.3	873	12.3	1631	25.6
Academic Status														
Undergraduate	24975	51.5	658	56.5	167	27.2	85	46.9	6260	36.4	4434	62.4	2780	43.7
Graduate	18682	38.5	331	28.4	392	64.0	89	49.2	9034	52.4	2025	28.5	2809	44.2
Special	3502	7.3	120	10.3	45	7.3	5	2.8	1511	8.8	440	6.2	524	8.2
No Answer	1327	2.7	56	4.8	9	1.5	2	1.1	370	2.1	211	2.9	249	3.9
Years Studying														
One	17835	36.8	475	40.8	214	34.9	73	40.3	6037	35.1	2231	31.4	2985	46.9
Two	9858	20.3	205	17.6	106	17.3	41	22.7	3416	19.9	1567	22.0	1178	18.5
Three or more.....	14429	29.8	337	28.9	151	24.6	51	28.2	5370	31.3	2419	34.0	1390	21.9
No Answer	6364	13.1	148	12.7	142	23.2	16	8.8	2352	13.7	893	12.6	809	12.7

Source: *Open Doors, 1960, IIE.*

TABLE C

FIELDS STUDIED BY STUDENTS FROM AFRICA IN THE U.S. COMPARED WITH FIELDS STUDIED
BY STUDENTS FROM OTHER PARTS OF THE WORLD, 1959-60

Category	All Foreign Students						AFRICA		FAR EAST		NEAR AND MIDDLE EAST		EUROPE		LATIN AMERICA	
	Africa So. of Sahara		North Africa		Union of So. Africa											
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Fields of Study																
Agriculture	1615	3.3	68	5.8	20	3.3	10	5.5	410	2.4	326	4.6	161	2.5	492	5.2
Business Administration	4114	8.5	85	7.3	53	8.6	12	6.6	1549	9.0	403	5.7	495	7.8	853	9.1
Education	2483	5.1	93	8.0	57	9.3	6	3.3	866	5.0	302	4.2	223	3.4	403	4.3
Engineering	11279	23.3	143	12.3	108	17.6	18	10.0	3642	21.2	2691	37.8	1132	17.8	2520	26.7
Humanities	9246	19.1	154	13.2	95	15.5	53	29.2	2706	15.8	863	12.1	1644	25.9	2050	21.7
Medical Science	3685	7.6	106	9.1	52	8.5	23	12.7	1236	7.2	471	6.6	466	7.3	738	7.9
Physical & Natural Science (Biology)	7276	15.0	164	14.1	101	16.5	32	17.7	3344	19.5	924	13.0	962	15.1	889	9.4
Social Science	1847	3.8	84	7.2	27	4.4	12	6.6	781	4.5	220	3.1	198	3.1	282	3.0
(Economics)	6782	14.0	275	23.6	100	16.3	24	13.3	2838	16.5	849	12.0	1048	16.5	827	8.8
All Other	1923	3.9	92	7.9	29	4.7	5	2.8	791	4.6	231	3.2	95	4.6	311	3.3
Field Unknown	482	1.0	15	1.3	2	.3	0	0	118	.7	33	.5	29	.5	247	2.6
	1524	3.1	62	5.3	25	4.1	3	1.7	466	2.7	248	3.5	202	3.2	409	4.3

Source: *Open Doors, 1960, IIE.*

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